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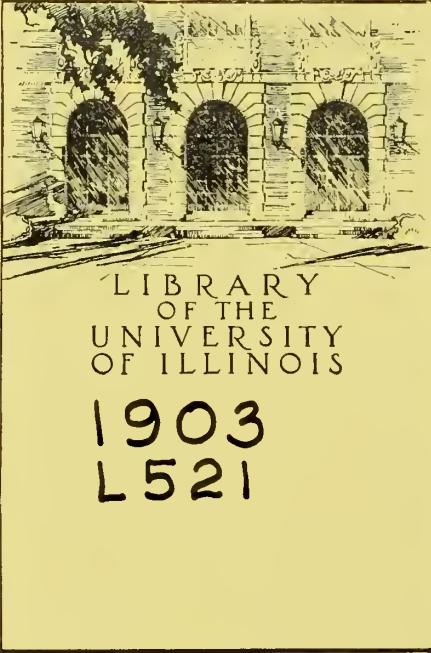
LEFLER

Review of Macfarlane's
Library Administration
With American Notes

Library Science

B. L. S.

1903





A R E V I E W

of

MACFARLANE'S "LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION" WITH AMERICAN NOTES

by

E M M A G R A C E L E F L E R

Thesis for the Degree of Bachelor of Library Science

in the

STATE LIBRARY SCHOOL

of the

U N I V E R S I T Y O F I L L I N O I S

June, 1903

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THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT THE THESIS PREPARED UNDER MY SUPERVISION BY

Emma Grace Heffer

ENTITLED a review of Macfarlane's "Library administration," with American notes

IS APPROVED BY ME AS FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

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INTRODUCTION.

The aim of the present writer has been to give the scope of Mr. Macfarlane's work, to supplement it with more recent information and by means of the American notes to bring out the chief points of comparison between British and American methods of library administration. The author's unfortunate choice of a title was the cause of much of the criticism which met the publication of his book. "The Library" says in part with reference to it. "It was expected that the work would be on modern libraries and methods. Instead of a complete exposition on library administration, it is simply a description of the special methods of the British Museum with an occasional sally abroad. It gives the stereotyped methods of an institution which cannot be imitated by small libraries, and ought not to be by large." This is met, however, by the statement of the author in his preface, that it has not been his aim to produce an authoritative Code of library government; but rather to bring out the salient points of the librarian's duties and difficulties, and while treating them chiefly as affecting libraries of the first rank, to have produced a work not unacceptable in insti-

tutions less highly organised. The constant reference to the British Museum gives the work a sort of historical unity, as is mentioned by Mr. Garnett, the editor of the series, in his introduction. The work is suggestive, interesting and of value as a tentative work on this new subject. The author has written from the side of the subject with which he is familiar and has left much unexplored territory for those who come after him.

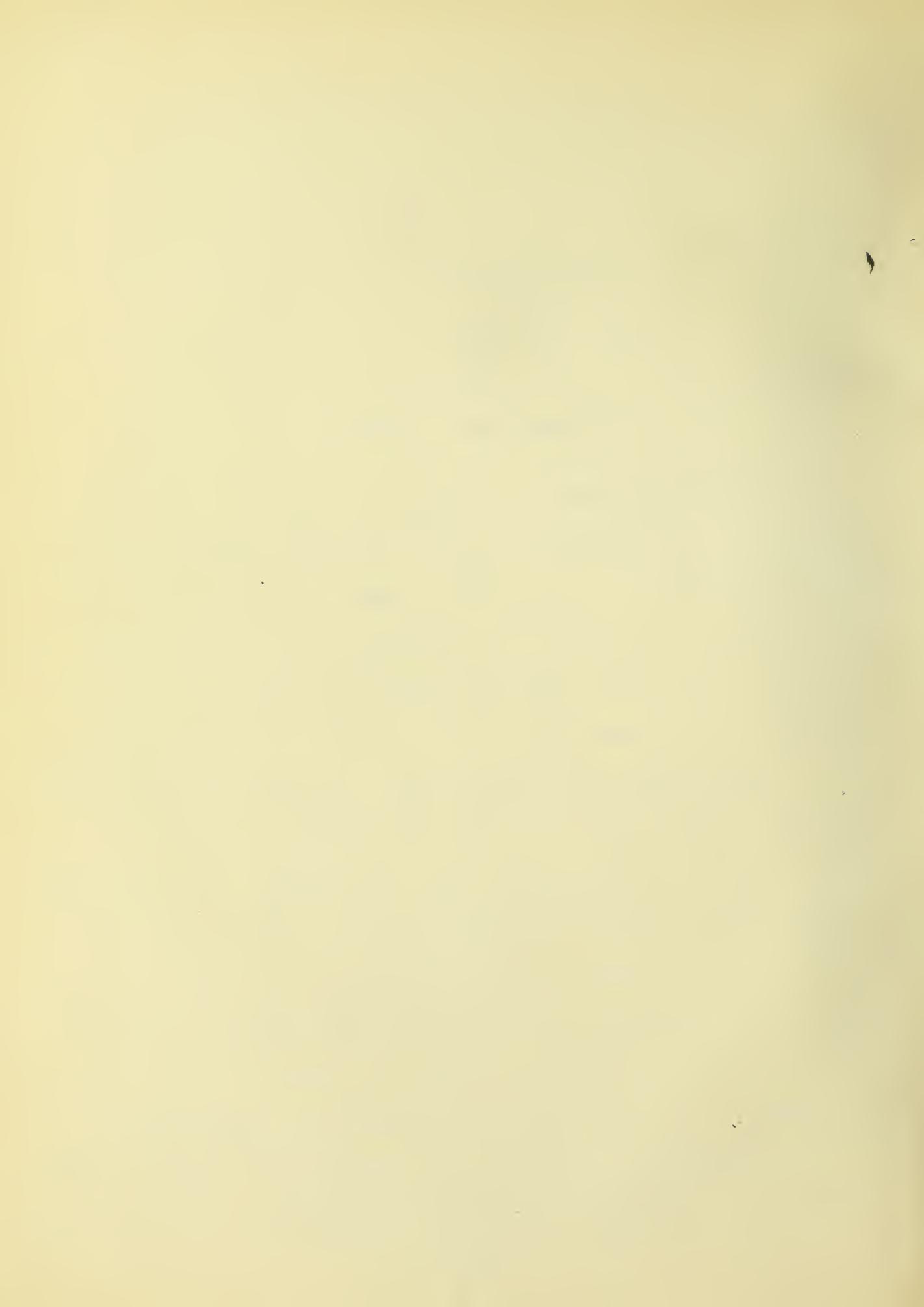
I.

The LIBRARY and its STAFF.

The opening chapter is a historical sketch of the library and its staff, in the latter part of the nineteenth century, including the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy and the United States. The training of librarians; the selection of a staff, with the requirements in the more important libraries; salaries in various countries and the governing body of a library are discussed in turn.

Passing over with brief mention, the evolution of the library from the earliest known collection in Assyria and Rome to the period of the Renaissance when books became the fashion, the author comes at once to his subject, the public library. Usually considered a product of modern times, it is interesting to note that the public library dates from 1437, when Niccolò Niccoli left his collection of manuscripts to the city of Florence and they were thrown open to the public. The collection is now merged in the Laurenziana.

The change in the duties of librarian from custodian of the books in the troublous times of the fifteenth and sixteenth century



to the numerous and varied obligations of the present day is only briefly sketched, but suggests that the varying types were suited to the needs of their time. "The modern conception of the librarian seems to have been first reached, at least in Great Britain, by one John Durie, who set forth his views in an interesting little work, *The Reformed Librarie Keeper*" (London, 1650, 12 mo.)" Interesting extracts are given from Durie's book, followed by a brief summary showing a remarkable foresight of the work. From this early ideal of the modern librarian we pass to the ideal librarian of modern times—Henry Bradshaw, in Great Britain at least.

Library training.

As the product depends upon its factors so the librarian is best understood through his training, which will now be considered in the different countries. The author admits that the methods used in Great Britain are "less precise" than in the United States and on the Continent: but judged from results he considers them quite as satisfactory.

Great Britain.

The only organized training in Great Britain is directed by the Library Association. This consists of a summer school for librarians. A program of the school and a set of examination questions is appended. To encourage the students prizes are offered for the best papers. The questions as a rule are practical and specific. So much cannot be said for the examination questions for

positions in popular libraries, which are also given by the Library Association. The applicant must have done library work for three years or produce a certificate from some accepted public examination. The questions cover bibliography, English and French literary history, cataloguing, classification, shelf arrangement and library management. Mr. Macfarlane (himself) says of them, that they are either "absurdly superficial or the test is absurdly severe, and it is no wonder that candidates fail to present themselves."

In striking contrast to those severe examinations is the plan which is fully explained for selecting assistants at the British Museum, where no bibliographical knowledge is required. The candidates must be nominated and then undergo two examinations, one to test efficiency in writing, arithmetic, mathematics or history and the other competitive, translation from and composition in Latin and Greek and two or three modern languages. The successful candidates are then received on two years probation.

Compare with this the plan of the Boston public library which trains its own assistants. The examination questions sent out are designed to cover all points of library science which branch assistants need to know. The answers are distributed after a short time. The object is not primarily to test ability. The questions are specific and deal with library science as applied to the branch of one library. This is not mentioned by the author who has also neglected to point out one general point of difference between library training in England and in the United States. In England more stress is laid on

the literary and bibliographical side of the work while in the United States the practical part is considered of first importance.*

It is to be regretted that so few women are engaged in library work in Great Britain. They are astonishingly few as compared with the United States. Mr. Macfarlane attributes this to male arrogance, but that seems hardly fair to the Englishman. The following quotation appears in a recent discussion of the woman question, by Von Lily Braun, who admits that America leads the world in the privileges given to women. "One must take into consideration that not merely the greater generosity or the deeper comprehension of the American men for the strivings of the feminine sex is the cause of this, but to a much greater extent, the fact that the United States looked back upon only a short period of economic development and that there was no thought of an overcrowding of professional careers which would inevitably have called forth the opposition of men." She even suggests that the present movement against co-education is due to apprehension of danger from this very source. Be that as it may, the movement is an unpopular one and cannot possibly succeed. Another strong factor has been the natural conservatism of the English people, which makes change seem revolution and holds them in the old and tried customs. These are the barriers which have kept women out of the popular libraries and which are still keeping them out of the more scholarly libraries.

Of this type of library, the Bodleian presents the singular feature

* Boston Pub. Lib. report.

of a staff largely composed of small boys. This plan as worked out by Mr. Nicholson, the librarian, is explained in detail in his own words. It may be doubted if the plan offers any real advantages; at any rate it has several undeniable disadvantages.

- 1- Requires much revision.
- 2- Takes too much time for necessary instruction.
- 3- There is nothing to offer a bright boy, when he arrives at maturity comparable with what he might have done, if he had stayed in school.

Mr. Nicholson has already discovered the truth of the second point and has been forced to abandon the plan of lectures, study courses and examinations, with which he began.

The age limit is closely drawn and no boy is admitted under thirteen or over fifteen and one half years of age. What possible gain could there be from the employment of these boys in such work as cataloging? The necessary revision would require as much of the time and probably more of the patience of the senior staff, than would be necessary to do the work in the first place.

The third point is made clear by Mr. Nicholson himself, who says:- "Some vacancies having arisen in the senior staff of the library, some of the oldest and most promising under-assistants have been offered and have accepted the librarian's nomination to them on condition of going through the University. They receive a salary of £60. The library will thus enlist as assistants, University-men with a thorough library training at a lower price than it would

have been able to offer to University-men who had no such training." This unfair discrimination against their own students, coupled with the meagerness of the salary will hardly prove an inducement to capable boys to enter as assistants.

In many of the larger libraries of Great Britain the assistants are trained by the chief librarian, sometimes forming an "association" corresponding to the American "apprentice class," which seems to be growing in favor.

United States.

Library training in the United States is considered at some length. Due credit is accorded to Mr. Dewey for establishing the "American library school." The "New York school" now (1902) admits on a degree from some "literary college" of good standing." Even their selection is carefully made from those applying. The course is both practical and theoretical, apprentice work, and lectures. Examinations at the end of each year test the students progress. Only those obtaining an average of 90% receive a degree. Since 1897 the completion of the junior work does not necessarily admit to the senior class. "Only those who seem likely to render important services to the library profession are admitted."

With brief mention of the library schools at Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, and at Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, the author passes to the State Library School of the University of Illinois. The latter gives practically the same work as at Albany: but does not yet

require a degree for entrance. A recent change however makes it a five years course, of which the first three years must be devoted to the regular course in the College of Literature and Arts or in the College of Science.

The work of Pratt and Drexel Institutes deserve explanation, however. At Pratt the general course covers one year of study, with an optional second year in special lines of work. Students are admitted only on examination, which is competitive since the class is limited to twenty. Previous education, training, experience and personal fitness for the work are also taken into consideration. The examinations are not technical in character but are based on high school work and are "designed to test the general information of the candidate, especially his knowledge of literature, history, current events, French and German." * At Drexel Institute a one year's course is offered. As at Pratt Institute the class is limited to twenty and selection is made from those presenting the best examination papers. The examination is based on high school work; but foreign languages are not required, although a knowledge of French and German counts in favor of the candidate.

Among recent developments is a course in library training at Simmons College, Boston, which was introduced this year (1902.) At present only one year of library work is given. A training school for children's librarians at Pittsburg Carnegie library has been

* Pratt Inst.- School of library training.- Circular, 1901
Drexel " Lib. school.- Circular, 1901- 02- 03.

started and is being developed rapidly. Another school still in the future is due to the beneficence of the patron of libraries, Mr. Carnegie. With an endowment of \$100,000 and it is expected a building costing about that amount, (the money to be raised by subscription), the new library school at Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, promises to be a success.

The number of summer schools is increasing and many colleges and universities give a course of lectures on the use of the library. Thus the aim is constantly to make more accessible the great stores of knowledge so long hidden because the people did not know how to find it and the librarian could not or would not help them.

France, Prussia and Italy,

Library training is generally speaking not organised in any of these countries. True, there is a chair of library science at Göttingen University, recently vacated by the death of Dr. Karl Pätzko; but the antiquarian side of library science, and bibliographical study take the place of practical work. Mr. Macfarlane makes no note of this school; but otherwise the sketch of library training and requirements for France, Prussia and Italy is definite and apparently complete.

From the study of the separate treatment of these countries the following conclusions may be drawn. The chief libraries on the continent all agree in requiring a degree and a technical examination as a test in selecting assistants, thus differing decidedly

from the British Museum. In the United Kingdom as well as on the Continent, however, a probationary period of volunteer service is insisted upon. The measures taken in the selection of a staff in both France and Prussia are very stringent. In Germany even in the popular libraries, a degree and a technical examination are the usual requirements. "The proportion of the staff recruited in this way is particularly large." Macfarlane suggests that some improvement in the system of arrangement would make possible the employment of uneducated labor, and would be more real help to the public.

Italy has a system of training in the University libraries, by which candidates are admitted on a high school certificate and examination. The successful candidates undergo two years training at the final appointments, as assistants in University libraries are made after a technical examination. The students have to meet the competition of outsiders in this last examination, as individuals with degrees and experience in some educational institution are admitted.

Salaries.

"The remuneration of a librarian probably suffers from the popular conception of him as a person fond of books, who gets a fortunate chance of reading all day."

Statistics of salaries in the libraries of Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy and the United States are interesting and suggestive, but not complete. In the United Kingdom, France and the

United States, the national libraries are the only ones considered while Germany and Italy receive more thorough treatment.

Some changes in the salaries at the Library of Congress have been made recently. The librarian now receives \$6,000. The salaries of the Superintendent of Music and the Superintendent of Manuscripts have been increased from \$1500 each to \$2000 and \$3000 respectively.

The salaries in the Bibliothèque Nationale are much lower than in the national libraries of Great Britain and the United States; the chief librarian or administrateur-général receiving only half as much as the Librarian of Congress. The salary of the head librarian is about the same in the British Museum, as in the Library of Congress, the principal Librarian of the British Museum receiving £1000 a year, with an official residence. The salaries of Superintendents of departments and of assistants, however, are higher as a rule in the British Museum than in the Library of Congress.

The chapter closes with a discussion of the governing body of a library in the United Kingdom and an explanation of the government of the national library of France. The Act of 1753, which determines the governing body of the British Museum and the Public Libraries Act 1892 are explained and extracts are given.

III.

ACQUISITION OF BOOKS.

The store-house of the Middle Ages is widely separated from the library of to-day, yet the chief functions of the old are still found in the new. The acquisition of books is still such an important subject, that Mr. Macfarlane has thought it worth while to devote an entire chapter to its discussion. The scope of the chapter is well set forth in the opening sentence:- "The contents of a library may be increased (1) by purchase, (2) by donation (a) spontaneous (b) legally enforced, (3) by exchange."

For the purchase of books, the sources of information are very satisfactory except for the largest libraries. Out of the way books, omitted from the lists or published in countries where no lists are issued, are difficult to find. "A complete list of the world's literary produce is an unattainable ideal." This makes the purchasing of books in the large national libraries, which are usually expected to make a complete collection of books published under the national flag and also to collect and preserve the choicest prod-

ucts of foreign literature, an almost impossible task. The "suggestion book" used by many libraries to help in the selection of books is of little value, the author thinks, except in libraries with a specialist clientele. This may be true but it seems likely that even the smaller public libraries would have readers interested along different lines whose 'suggestions' would be of great value to the librarian. The scheme is further recommended by the fact that it gives the public an opportunity to say what they want in their library. This might not be an unmixed good, however, in a library where the readers did not want any thing but the lightest of fiction.

After selecting the books the question of ordering comes in. Mr. Macfarlane would order only on approval. "It may be laid down as an invaluable rule, that a book should never be purchased before it is seen." This sounds very well but is quite impractical on account of the cost of carriage. If one accepts the rule it must be modified with the charge. Never order any thing you are not sure you will keep.

A matter of prime importance to libraries in ordering is the discount. The usual discount is much higher in Great Britain than in the other European countries. Great Britain securing 25 %, France 10-20 % and Germany 10 %.^{*} This is due to the Net price system inaugurated in May 1901 by the American Publishers Association and intended to prevent the sale of books at reduced prices in department stores. One price for all stores. The association does not attempt to set prices, however, and the ruling does not apply to

^{*}The libraries in the United States formerly received 33 1/3 %, but the average rate is now only 10%.

fiction, children's books, or to books published before 1900. It affects most seriously the reference library. The net price lasts for only one year after publication; but new books should be bought as soon as published for two reasons, (1) to keep the library up to date, (2) some books will soon be out of print and difficult to get. All of these things make the "net price system" a burden to American libraries.

The ordering of foreign publications, especially periodicals and journals is considered a difficult problem, by the author, since, as he says if these are obtained through dealers, they must be sent in batches. On the other hand, if the librarian saves dealer's commission and orders direct he must pay postage and put up with loss and damage in the post. In the United States this problem is solved best by ordering of an importer. It saves much trouble and shipments are made once a week. Mr. Macfarlane suggests another difficulty which the librarian encounters in ordering, that is the selection of books in the less known languages. "Unfortunately for him and we will also venture to say for the cause of human progress--there is an increasing tendency for small nationalities to push their own linguistic wares and to refuse (as in Hungary) or to be forbidden (as in Russia) to write in French, German or English." Still many of these books especially the scientific publications are of great value and must be purchased by a national library, and by public libraries in towns having a large foreign population.

The purchase of books out of print is much more difficult.

The author is again most conservative and extremely cautious and warns against purchasing before seeing. A more practical plan is to let your agent or some reliable second hand dealer have your order and fill it when they can.

The records necessary in ordering are an order index and a receipt index. Mr. Macfarlane recommends that the order index be kept on cards arranged by countries. The cards are in line with library progress and conform to American methods. The arrangement by countries, however, is an innovation and its value is doubtful. An alphabetic arrangement would be simpler and more useful. When the books come in, the date is stamped on the cards, which in the United States are then filed alphabetically and serve as the receipt index. It is suggested that the order index should include gifts, as this may prevent unnecessary duplication. A separate alphabetic arrangement is recommended for the cards for out of print books. Why not the alphabetic arrangement for all?

Donations.

Mr. Macfarlane considers quite fully the question of gifts. The points brought out are somewhat as follows. Even the smaller libraries are largely indebted to donations and examples are not lacking of libraries built up almost entirely from this source. "The National Library of Switzerland, started at Berne in 1895 received by gift as many as 23000 volumes, pamphlets and broadsides in eight months."

Donations require prompt acknowledgment, and if from an author a speedy appearance in the catalogue, no difference how insignificant the gift. "Steady pursuance of this policy at the British Museum, even in the case of books apparently insignificant, is doubtless responsible in no small degree for the varied and valuable acquisitions from this source." A list of donors published in local newspapers as in Great Britain and the United States, or posted in the reading room, as in Italy, gives necessary publicity and serves to attract other gifts. "Among books thus acquired there will always be a certain proportion almost unobtainable by purchase, either because they are not printed for sale, or because they are too obscure to be advertised."

The most valuable gifts are collections. Besides the desirability of having special collections and the amount of time and labor they represent, they are of value from the librarian's point of view because they attract additions and other collectors. Mr. Macfarlane thinks that begging is inexcusable except in the case of books privately printed. This is certainly a dignified attitude and one which the British Museum can afford to take. It is not so considered by all librarians, however, and many issue "begging Blanks" more especially for additions to collections and for pamphlets etc.

Some libraries are so fortunate as to receive not only gifts in the usual sense of the word, but also gifts "legally enforced." The National libraries generally receive, in this way, all home publications under "Copyright acts." Copyright developed soon after the invention

tion of printing. The first regulations were made by the censors of the press to see that the printed copy corresponded with the manuscript, which had received their imprimatur. This was followed by regulations of monarchs and other dignitaries who granted privileges to printers and publishers. "Late developments of state control were the obligation to send "students" copies to the universities, and the modern "copyright" acts, officially declaring the proprietorial rights in books, apart from any question of "privilege" to a printer."

"The first legal demand on printers and publishers to supply copies of every-thing they issued was that of Francis I, of France, who in 1537 promulgated a decree requiring copies to be sent to the Royal Library at Fontainebleau. This library was made semi-public, under the librarianship of Isaac Casaubon, and a great part of it is now ~~is~~ incorporated with the Bibliothèque Nationale."

"In Prussia, the Königliche Bibliothek at Berlin has since 1624 received "obligatory copies" (*pflichtexemplare*)"

"In Spain a law of 1716 invested the Royal Library of Madrid with the same privilege. The legislation affecting books in this country has been strangely varied. Under the law of 1830 as many as nine copies were required to be deposited."

"Belgium is the only European country in which the depot legal is unknown, much to the sorrow of the National Library."

"Italian legislation neglected the question of general copyright till 1848 and it was not until 1873 that copies had to be de-

deposited for the benefit of the university libraries."

"The United States enacted a general copyright law in 1790, but many of the states had before this legislated on their own account."

"In less civilized countries, copyright acts are of very recent introduction. They appeared for instance in Venezuela and the Transvaal in 1887, and in Turkey the year following. In the latter country, as also in Russia, Japan and Egypt, it is still the censorship of the press that necessitates the supply of books, though they are not as of old, submitted first in manuscript form."

The earliest copyright regulations in England came from the Stationer's Company, 1556. They required nine copies to be sent to the Company's Hall. The Licensing Act 1662 made the first provision for "students copies," in giving the privilege of one copy to the Bodleian Library and the University of Cambridge. Later the Universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow and St Andrews, Kings' College, Dublin and the British Museum were similarly favored. All except the British Museum were deprived of their privileges in 1836.

A reprint of the Copyright Act of 1842, which is still in force, is given. It requires one copy of every work separately published. This must be on the best paper and in every way the same as the best copies published. The copy must be delivered within a month except in the case of provincial publishers, who are allowed three months. A penalty not exceeding five pounds besides the value of the copy which ought to be delivered is imposed for every default in

delivering books pursuant to the Act. The penalty in the United States is \$25, "The Act also gives the libraries of Oxford and Cambridge Universities, Trinity College, Dublin, and the advocates of Library Edinburgh, a right to a copy of every book published, but claim has been made, and that within twelve months. Moreover, the publishers are not bound to send éditions de luxe, but only ordinary copies."

Mr. Macfarlane thinks unnecessary tenderness is shown to provincial publishers in allowing them three months in which to deliver. Quite as unnecessary it would seem is the one month to publishers in the United Kingdom.

In the United States a copy of the title page must be filed with the Librarian of Congress before, and two copies deposited at the office of the Librarian of Congress or in the mail within the United States not later than the day of publication.

The class of books not included in the Act and those escaping it through their own obscurity are not considered. "The Act probably supplies ninety-five per cent of all the books that fall under its provisions."

The author thinks that the British Museum should be imperial in its copyright. It is, doubtless, only a question of time until it will be so. The conditions in the different colonies are briefly sketched.

Germany-

With its decentralized government is particularly unfortu-

rate in this matter of copyright. Each state is free to make its own regulations, and some have taken no action as yet. The regulations of the different states present some amusing inconsistencies. "Thus in Saxony there is no compulsory delivery, whereby the books appearing at Leipzig, the chief library centre of the Empire, altogether escape. In Prussia, maps are not subject to delivery unless bearing some portion, however small of printed text."

"The difficulties occasioned by a Federal form of government are not insurmountable, and Germany might well follow the example of the United States." The difficulty will be in choosing the national library. Berlin has the best collection in Germany, by all odds; but it is a Prussian library, and the South Germans would begrudge it their support. "For similar reasons a project for creating an Imperial library at Leipzig, Frankfort, or Nuremberg, met with violent opposition (in 1880)."

France-

has a peculiar system of administration of the Copyright Acts. The duty of providing copies falls on the printer instead of the publisher. The book need not be bound or even sewed. The cover of a book is frequently delivered by one firm and the body by another. Two copies are required, one to go to the Bibliothèque Nationale, the other to the Ministry of Public Instruction. They need not be delivered at Paris however but may be sent to the chefs - lieux de department or county town.

These second copies are distributed by the Minister who sends 300 public libraries, according to their importance and special needs. This seems to be an excellent plan and one is interested to know how it works out.

The censorship of the press is still strong in France and the printer is required to give the number of copies in making his delivery. If it is a large edition the officials will examine it carefully. The law includes all printed matter, whether issued gratuitously or not, with the exception of certain classes, whereas under English law matter printed for gratuitous distribution does not come under the Act." The copies must be delivered "simultaneously with publication." The author suggests that this is due to the desire to keep up a censorship over every thing printed which is in any way intended to court publicity.

There is no mention of the Act of 1891 by which the United States allowed copyright to foreigners with certain restrictions.

Sec. 13 of the Act of 1891 reads as follows:- "That this act shall only apply to a citizen or subject of a foreign state or nation when such foreign state or nation permits to citizens of the United States of America the benefit of copyright on substantially the same basis as its own citizens; or when such foreign state or nation is a party to an international agreement which provides for reciprocity in the granting of copyright, by the terms of which agreement the United States of America may at its pleasure become

a party to such agreement. The existence of either of the conditions aforesaid shall be determined by the President of the United States, by proclamation made from time to time as the purposes of this act may require."

Since the passage of this Act the United States has come into copyright relations with the following states:

| | | |
|-------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| Belgium |) | |
| | (| |
| France |) | By proclamation of the |
| | (| |
| * Great Britain |) | President, July 4, 1891. |
| | (| |
| Switzerland |) | |
| | | |
| Germany, by Treaty, | | March 8, 1892 |
| Italy, by Proclamation, | | Oct. 31, 1892 |
| Denmark, | " | May 3, 1893 |
| Portugal, | " | July 20, 1895 |
| Spain, | " | July 15, 1895 |
| Mexico, | " | Feb. 27, 1896 |
| The Netherlands | | |
|) | | |
| (Chili | | Since 1898 |
|) | | |
| (Costa Rica | | |

The subject of International copyright which has caused so much discussion, is entirely ignored. The Berne Agreement of 1886 was signed by the leading foreign states. An International Copyright Convention at Montevideo in 1889 secured the support of sever-

(z) Putnam.- Question of copy right.

* Great Britain and her possessions, including India, Canada the Australias etc.

South American Governments. The United States has not signed the Berne agreement.

In his last report, 1902, Mr. Solberg the Registrar of Copyrights again calls attention to the need of revision of the copyright laws and urges the appointment of a Copyright Commission to undertake that task. He says: "Our law as it stands is not only inadequate by reason of its being based on antiquated models and because its modification has not kept pace with the great material development of the last quarter of a century; but it is difficult of interpretation, application, and administration because of textual inconsistencies and contradictions. In justice to the interests of the literary and artistic producers of the United States, and also of foreign countries, the various Copyright acts now in force should be welded into one consistent statute, simple in phraseology, broad and liberal in its principles, and framed to secure not only the fullest protection, within our widely extended territory, but the reciprocal, international exchange of copyright privileges."

Exchange.-

Another important means of enlarging the collection of books in any library is by exchange. National libraries desire to have as complete a file as possible of the official documents of other countries. For this reason it is customary for Governments to make arrangements for exchange on a large scale. Mr. Macfarlane gives a list of the countries from which the British Museum receives documents and makes the following complaint. "The unfortunate part

of the arrangement is that there exists a yearly list of the British documents, and if the other parties to the agreement do not get them all they want to know the reason why. Only one of them, however, publishes a similar list, and that one, issued by the United States, is by the means comprehensive, so that the situation is somewhat one-sided." This is a mistake; since 1895 the United States has issued a Monthly Catalogue of all the Government publications. It is arranged by departments, with bureaus and divisions as a subarrangement. The volumes for 1895 - 96 were not indexed but the later ones have a good index cumulating monthly beginning with June.

The exchange of duplicates will doubtless be fully developed in the future. The great possibilities in International exchange are only beginning to be appreciated. Instead of the duplicates in large libraries being sent to the small libraries where they will in many cases be utterly worthless, they will exchange with some library of equal rank and similar interests in some other country.

International exchange in the United States is in charge of the Smithsonian Institution. Publications are sent to the Institution for distribution. Acknowledgements are made to the parties giving them. Likewise requests by foreign governments or institutions are often made for publications on various subjects. The requests are sent by the Institution to libraries where such material may have been accumulated and are nearly always filled. The Bureau of International Exchange of the Smithsonian Institution was founded in 1889.

Its objects are stated as follows:-

- 1- The formation of bureaus under the government of each country for the collection and distribution of Government publications.
- 2- For the collection and distribution of the publications of learned societies.
- 3- For the procurement on lowest terms of books, maps, instruments etc.
- 4- The transmission of at least one copy of all national publications to all other contracting countries.

In connection with "Exchanges" which the author passes over very lightly (only mentioning with regard to international exchange that it would be of great value to scholars), is taken up the subject of weeding out." Many valuable suggestions are given as to what books may generally be spared. It depends upon the character of the library. "The largest libraries will only discard their duplicates." The methods of disposing of duplicates accumulated in the national libraries of Italy and in the University and "students" libraries in Austria is briefly but well sketched.

An alphabetical arrangement by country of the periodical lists of new publications closes the chapter. Singularly enough Great Britain is omitted from the list and there is no mention of the "Publisher's circular."

III

Cataloguing.

Having acquired the books they must be recorded and made available. The public may be allowed to examine the books on the shelves; but catalogues are indispensable both to librarians and readers. It is suggested that catalogues may be (1) Author, (2) Subject, (3) The shelf catalogue, (4) Form-catalogue and (5) the Dictionary catalogue.

The Author-catalogue is taken up first. Two notable examples are the author catalogue of the British Museum Library and the Bibliothèque Nationale of which the Museum catalogue takes precedence by seniority and completeness. There are now (August, 1902) seven volumes of the Catalogue of the Bibliothèque Nationale in print.

An outline sketch of the origin and development of the catalogue of the British Museum is of interest and leads to the consideration of the Museum cataloguing rules which are based on Panizzi's Ninety-one rules.

Comparison of the British Museum cataloguing rules and the new A. L. A. code which is practically the code of the Library of Congress:-

82.(1) Saints.

Corresponds to 44 A. L. A. Code.

Persons canonized, enter under their first name i.e. the name by which they have been canonized.

Popes and Sovereigns. 44 - 47 A. L. A.

Names given in the

vernacular for sovereigns except Oriental names.*

British Museum. Popes and Sovereigns- enter under the name which officially assume.

Princes of sovereign houses- under Christian name only- Corresponds to 44 A. L. A.

Peers and Bishops- under family name. Nothing corresponding in new A. L. A.

82.(2) Latin form of name versus Vernacular.

British Museum

determined by the usage of the author. 47 A. L. A.

Names in full and in the vernacular except (see 8 below)

*Under question.

Mr. Lane recommends the omission of the rule regarding Oriental writers.

(a) Greek authors of the Classic period ...under Latin form of name.

(b) certain medieval names and ... Renaissance and Reformation pe-

riod ... under Latin form when this is more generally known. (c)
 Popes, enter under vernacular form of name.

33. (3) Spelling of foreign personal names.

Vernacular ex-

cept in case of ancient Greeks, Biblical personages and official names of sovereigns, princes, popes and saints. In these the English form is preferred. Corresponds to 47 A. L. A. except that popes are there entered under vernacular form of name. Moreover the A.L.A. rule does not except Biblical personages or official names of sovereigns, princes, popes and saints; but 47b specifies that certain medieval names and also several from the Renaissance and Reformation period are to be entered under the Latin form when this is more generally known.

33. (4) Foreign names,

except French, preceded by a preposition, by an article, or by both are entered under the letter immediately following. French names preceded by a preposition only, follow the same rule; those preceded by an article, or by a preposition and an article, are entered under the initial letter of the article or preposition. English surnames of foreign origin are to be entered under their initial, even if originally belonging to a preposition.

48 A.L.A. English, French and Belgian surnames beginning with a prefix (except the French de and d' and Belgian de, d' van, van der, van den, ten and ter) are to be entered under the prefix; in other

63

languages under the word following. Thus the two rules are practically the same.

33. (5) Compound names.

Foreign names under the first and Dutch and English under the last part. B.M. A.L.A. does not except Dutch names. Both codes give precedence to the usage of the author.

34. (6) Initials

Treat as though they were complete words.—

B. M. Identical with A.L.A. 4:- Enter under initials of authors names when these only are known, the last initial being put first unless the typography or evidence from the book itself shows that the surname is represented by one of the preceding letters.

34. (7) Initials of forenames are filled in when possible.

Nothing in new A.L.A. corresponds to this except 47.

It is generally practiced however, although the tendency now is to not look up full names if not used by the author, unless of course it is necessary to distinguish from another author of the same name.

34. (8) Joint author.

B. M. gives only two authors. A.L.A. three authors, if more than that in note or contents. There is objection to giving only two names, because frequently (especially in scientific books) the one last named really did the work and the others are put first because of their prominence.

34. (9) Collections.

Under name of editor or collector; if there is no editor, the collection is treated as anonymous—B. M.

corresponds to A.L.A. Enter under name of collector unless letter known by title, or like periodicals are to be indefinitely continued.

85.() Absence of Declared Authorship B. M.

(a) Books concerning a person are entered under his name.

(b) Books concerning an institution ... under its name.

(c) Those concerning a place or object bearing a proper name under its name.

When foregoing rule does not apply the heading is:-

(d) The name of a person or place forming a necessary part of the title.

(e) Or the first substantive in the title.

(f) Or the first word other than an article.

A.L.A. is the same as (f).

86.(1) A compound expression formed with an adjective derived from a proper name may be used as a heading, or the proper name itself may be substituted. There is nothing corresponding in the new A.L.A.

86.(2) Official designations or descriptions.

If the identity is clear the book is not considered anonymous, but is to be entered under the name of the author. When author conceals his identity, the official name assumed is treated as a real name, and taken as a heading. B. M. There is nothing corresponding in the new A.L.A.

86.(3) Commentaries. A.L.A. 38, similar.

Enter commentaries accompanied by full text of work, under the name

of the author commented on unless the typographical disposition of the text clearly indicates its intended secondary position In these cases entry should be made under the name of the commentator.

88.(III) Exceptions.

Various classes of books excepted from the preceding rules.

(a) Bible.

Corresponds to rule S. A.L.A. Enter the Bible or any part of it including the Apochrypha, in any language under the word Bible.

(b) Academies under academies. B.M. Very different from the new A.L.A. rule:- Enter under first word not an article or titular designation.

(c) Periodicals.

Enter under the general heading Periodical Publications, followed by the name of the place of publication. Not given in the new A.L.A.; but Library of Congress rule is to make the main entry for periodicals under the last form of the name.

(d) Euphemerides.... Catalogues.... dictionaries.... encyclopedias and directories under a form entry. There is nothing corresponding in the new A.L.A. code.

(e) Liturgies are entered under Liturgies, followed by the name of the Church putting them forth and of the Order, Diocese, etc, in which their use is enjoined. Nothing at all like this in the new A.L.A.

89. I. Cross references

are made from alternative form of the same heading.

(c) These are made from any alternative, incomplete, inaccurate, or foreign form of name, used in the book, to the form adopted for the heading.

(b) From the name of any institution, periodical, etc., to any larger heading under which it is entered. Cross references of the second kind are made.

II (a) From name of author to heading selected when book is not entered under author.

(b) To a heading consisting of initials or a descriptive name, from the heading under which the book would have appeared if the initials or descriptive name had been absent.

III. Cross references of the third kind are made.

(a) From the names of editors, translators, subjects of biography, authors of books criticised etc.

(b) From the names of the author of part of a book, or of a book forming part of a series. L. Corresponds to the analytic so generally used in American catalogues. 89 I a, also corresponds to general usage.

General cross-references may be used when convenient. This corresponds to American practice.

There is nothing about cross-references in new A.L.A.

92. Maps.

A catalogue of main entries under subject-headings and sub-entries under author entries, arranged in one alphabet, arrangement under the first being mainly chronological with alphabetical

arrangement under the author entries. The new A.L.A. code has nothing about maps; but it is customary to enter in the main catalogue under both author and subject, atlases etc.

93. Music.

The British Museum has a catalogue of music in two sections. Section (1) consisting of a catalogue of musical compositions under the names of composers; section (2) cross references from the authors of words set to music to the names of the composers in section (1). Arrangement of both sections is alphabetical. The subject of a music catalogue is not touched in the new A.L.A. The Library of Congress has a card catalogue in dictionary form for Music. Entries are made under composer title and subject with numerous cross-references.

94. Cross-references

are now arranged in regular alphabetic place with the other entries. The change was made with the printing of the letter D. They were formerly arranged separately. In the new arrangement they follow American custom.

95. Form entry.

Academies, dictionaries etc. Academies is reserved for bodies that publish the results of research. Such headings serve to keep together books of the same kind; but are confusing to readers and cause much delay.

Mr. Macfarlane admits that the treatment of pseudonymous works in the British Museum catalogue is unsatisfactory, since it does not give a complete list of an author's works under his name,

but only those so written, those under pseudonyms being provided for by general cross-references to such pseudonyms. They have made an exception of Thackery, thus proving the necessity of change. The author concedes that the card catalogue has the advantage in this respect, since the author's real name can be inserted as soon as known.

The catalogue of the Bibliothèque Nationale is considered next and its peculiarities are noted and criticised. The first volume appeared in 1897. There are now (1902) seven volumes in print.

The translation of titles in languages other than French, English, Greek, Latin and its modern derivatives, seems useless. If a person did not know the language a mere translation of the title would not help him.

The author's name is repeated in all cases in the body of the title, thus causing much needless duplication.

The contents of each volume, in case of editions in many volumes is given in the catalogue of the Bibliothèque Nationale. This is a useful practice as is also the plan of keeping translations with the other editions of the text. Contents are given to a limited extent in the British Museum catalogue.

The name of the printer or publisher is added to all books where known. It helps to differentiate editions.

Notes are given describing the bindings. The author considers this a serious omission in the catalogue of the British Museum.

8. Dates. No attempt is made at the Bibliothèque Nationale to supply dates of books except in the case of modern French books which bear copy right date. At the same time the order of the entries is supposed to be chronological under each work.

9. The paging is also omitted as it was "at the British Museum until about ten years ago."

10. The forenames are not filled in, many English and American names being left as initials.

11. The arrangement is confusing.

12. In choosing between different forms of an author's name take "the form best known in France."

Academics are classified territorially under Sociétés savantes. The British Museum abandoned this arrangement long since for an alphabetical arrangement under names of towns.

Anonymous books include those published under initials. The decision is probably due partly to the experience of British Museum which made so many entries (1393) under initials.

The cataloguing rules of the Bodleian library and of the Royal Library at Breslau (compiled by the late Prof. Dziatzko of the University of Göttingen) are treated similarly, but less in detail. The Bodleian rules are for the most part flexible and elastic. With respect to "noblemen" which are entered under the title and "English compound names under the first part," the rules are exactly contrary to those of the British Museum and also in the case of compound names to the new A.L.A. code.

The likeness between the cataloguing rules of the Library Association as revised at the Liverpool meeting in 1883, and the Bodleian rules is remarked and their differences are noted.

The Breslau system is praised for its "scientific completeness." The author thinks the difference between it and the code of the British Museum is largely due to the fact that the Preslau catalogue is on cards.

The rules for pseudonyms and for "descriptions" correspond to American usage. The selection of a title for anonymous books, however, is made unnecessarily difficult by numerous regulations.

From the analysis and comparison of the catalogues of these four large libraries, the author passes to the discussion of the relative merits of the different forms of catalogues. He uses the term subject-catalogue, to cover both classed-catalogues and subject indexes.

He says the weakness of the system is seen, when applied to books on small subjects which no two persons would place alike in a logical scheme. "All admit the need of an author catalogue but some argue that the public do not want a subject catalogue." Mr. Billings says this is not true in the New York public library for there it is used by 90 % of the readers and is of great value to the staff as well. The first revision and the preparation of guide cards and cross-references must be done by one person. in order that the cataloguers may be familiar with the form in which reader's queries are

put, Mr. Billings would have them take turns at the loan desk.

Subject catalogues versus bibliographies have been much discussed and the chief points may be mentioned here. The subject catalogue is more useful to the average reader than the Repertory of the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels would be. A Bibliography, to be of use must be annotated and must tell where the books may be found. Example: Bibliography of New York Colonial History, published by the New York state library. Mr. Richardson says of the subject catalogue, that it is invaluable as a supplement to a system of logical classification, but useless when the object is exhaustive research and this is the exclusive classification. The Prussian government is issuing a subject catalogue of the library at Berlin and the ten University libraries. They have 20 volumes in manuscript. 1902.

The arrangement of a catalogue is an important question. Dictionary arrangement in a subject catalogue has the disadvantage of separating closely allied subjects. This may be obviated by a shelf list which will be available for readers. An alphabetical arrangement by subject in its general application to books belongs to the latter half of the nineteenth century. The dictionary catalogue is now the favorite form. In it, authors and subjects are in one alphabet generally with title entry also. It is used by the Boston Athenaeum, Brooklyn Public and the Peabody library.

"The classed-catalogue in the United States is chiefly a product of the Dewey system, which has of late attracted universal at-

attracted universal attention among bibliographers of Europe. This system was designed by Mr. Melvil Dewey, now Director of the New York State Library, and first given to the public in 1876."

The American systems of classifications have been known and used, (with modifications for the most part) in England for years. Since the adoption of the Decimal classification by the Brussels library conference 1895, they have attracted much attention throughout the continent. At the International Bibliographical Conference at Brussels 1897 it was very evident that the Dewey system had gained in favor with scientific men if not with librarians. The International Conference on Scientific Papers, London 1896, on the other hand would have nothing to do with it. The author disposes of the Brussels project in few words saying that it "hardly calls for serious notice in the present state of public opinion."

Mr. Macfarlane criticises the Dewey decimal system severely. He says, "The Dewey system was condemned in France as "complicated and illogical," in Germany as "mechanical and unscientific." He quotes from M. Léopold Delisle in the Journal des Savantes, March 1896, who criticises it for lack of proportion. Thus the space allotted to the United States is seven times that given to Belgium. This is not a practical defect as far as its use within the United States is concerned however. M. Delisle also criticises the classification of Religious orders and of Biography, for the arrangement and serious material errors which he points out in the class Religious orders.

A word from our own country (not mentioned by the author) from Mr. A.G.S. Josephson of the John Crerar library, who says that he was pleased to learn that the Bibliographical Conference at London did not adopt the Decimal Classification. He believes however that the work at Brussels may lead to the formation of a flexible system, adapted to universal needs. He would retain the use of decimals and perhaps the form divisions.

The author makes the sweeping statement that, Signor Chilovi, the head of the Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale at Florence is, ("so far as we know") the only librarian of the first rank, who welcomes the system. He would dispense with the use of press marks or call no's on books ^{as is} general in Europe. It is possible that the author has confused librarians of the first rank with librarians of national libraries.

Mr. Macfarlane neglects to mention that the system was defended by M.C. Richert, editor of the *Revue Scientifique* who urged the need of uniformity as follows. "There is analytical classification that is systematic, general and universal, in which the differences of individuality and personality disappear in such a way as to permit its use throughout the world making it a kind of ideological language. This system is the Decimal Classification, conceived by Mr. Dewey. The decimal system of numbers has been of great benefit; the same is true of this analytical classification. It is a grand effort toward unity which ought to be encouraged." He pleads for its adoption as an international system. It is based on an in-

ternational language i.e. the Arabic system of numbers. It is not theoretical, but has stood the test of experience.

One of the strong points in favor of the Decimal Classification is that it has been adopted by so many libraries. The sum total of human knowledge is not divisible into ten parts without grouping subjects not closely related. The division made is not a practical one, however. Philology and Literature should come together. Similarly, Sociology should be next to History. The classification of law is to be revised in the next edition. The classification of Library economy and Bibliography is now being revised for the Decimal classification. It was announced for edition (6), but no change was made. Electricity and electrical engineering were to have been extended also, but there has been no change as yet. The University of Illinois has extended the system for its own use. It has been published in three editions.

Elaborate additions have also been made by the Institut International de Bibliographic at Brussels, the author informs us. As an explanation of this statement he mentions the use of determinants, general and special. This is a mistake as the special determinants, to denote form, time and place are given in the 1835 edition of the Decimal Classification and the Brussels Conference was not until 1895. As far as the general determinants are concerned it is merely a scheme for uniting two class numbers with a colon between to express the two phases of a subject represented in some books.

The following claims for the Decimal Classification are ad-

are admitted by the author. The notation. (1) Refers to the proper part of the classed catalogue. (2) It is possible of indefinite expansion and provides a distinguishing mark. (3) It affords means of minute classification on the shelves. Another strong point in favor of the Decimal system is that it is flexible and considering what it aims to do is not complicated.

Mr. Macfarlane makes the curious blunder of calling the scheme "devised by Mr. Cutter of the Boston Athenaeum,, and applied by him to the library of that institution a modification of the Dewey plan." It is difficult to understand how any one could consider the Expansive classification a modification of the Decimal classification. The author devotes part of one paragraph to this "modification" which he considers to have "several advantages over its original." One of the chief merits is he thinks the Local List in which country divisions are always denoted by figures: distinguishes from divisions marked by letters. Having a broader base it needs fewer characters to express the same minuteness of classification.

Other advantages which have been claimed for the system by Mr. Cutter and others are: (1.) It gives greater power of making intercalations. (2.) It has greater elasticity and more power to express a proper relation of subjects. (3.) It is of later origin and more scientific. (4.) It follows the evolutionary theory throughout.

Mr. Cutter admits that numbers are more easily grasped than letters or a mixture of letters and numbers, but he thinks this is more than balanced by the shorter marks.

With reference to book numbers the author speaks of determinants for proper names and says they consist as a rule of the names themselves in alphabetical order. Example 396 Molière, for Molière's "Ideas of women." There is no mention of the Cutter Alphabetic Order Table, of its supplement the new Cutter Order table, 1902) or of the Cutter-Sanborn table. The new table is simply enlarged from the Cutter Alphabetic Order table, and can be used where this has been by simply adding another figure, as it is a three figure table.

After digressing for some fourteen pages in the discussion of the Decimal system and a brief comparison with the expansive classification, the author returns to his consideration of the different varieties of catalogues. The shelf catalogue, identical with the classed catalogue in a closely classified library, is briefly explained with its uses.

With a passing reference to the form-catalogue, which "has practically no existence alone, but contributes elements to the other varieties of catalogue," the author takes up the dictionary catalogue. He gives the aims as set forth by Mr. Cutter in his "Rules for a dictionary catalogue" and discusses some of the rules.

Its aims are said to be-

I. To enable a person to find a book of which either-

- (A). The author)
- (
- (B) . The title) is known.
- (
- (C) The subject)

II. To show what a library has-

- (D) By a given author.
- (E) On a given subject.
- (F) In a given kind of literature.

III. To assist in the choice of a book.

- (G) As to its edition (bibliographically)
- (H) As to its character (literary or topical).

The means to be adopted for achieving these ends are-

- (1) Author entry (for A and D)
- (2) Title-entry or Title-references (for B)
- (3) Subject entry, cross references, and
classed subject table (for C and E.)
- (4) Form entry (for F.)
- (5) Giving edition and imprint, with notes
when necessary (for G.).
- (6) Notes (for H).

In summing up he points out that the classed catalogue (1903) has an advantage over the dictionary in that the latter can only be printed as a whole, while any part of a classed catalogue in which the public are particularly interested can be periodically brought up to date and separately issued. He does not attempt to decide between them, however, but says "The contest of the catalogues is hardly a fair one till it is decided what information they are required to provide."

Volume Versus Card Catalogue:

The material shape of the catalogue is the next point to be considered. It may be a volume or a card catalogue. The advantages of the volume catalogue are set forth as follows:- (1) It is easier to consult. (2) The searching for titles being the work of the eye rather than the finger and thumb, it is more cleanly in a large library. (3) Is less bulky, a strong point. (4) The volume catalogue, if printed as is usually the case, "can be dispatched throughout the world for the information of students. The disadvantage of a volume-catalogue is that "it is impossible to foresee how much space to leave in a given place for future accessions." Another serious defect of the volume catalogue is that it is never up to date. "The general verdict appears to be that the card-catalogue is most serviceable for all libraries but the largest, i.e those of which the catalogues have to be printed in the interests of knowledge."

The card catalogue has been so generally adopted in the United States that the American Library Association has secured "uniformity in the size and shape of the cards employed, the structure of the boxes used for displaying them and in devices for arrangement." Some recent developments must be noted. The scheme for co-operative cataloguing has now become a complete and satisfactory system. The A.L.A. Publishing Board issues cards for twenty-one Bibliographical serials. The Library of Congress beginning with November 1901 issued cards for current copyright books, miscellaneous accessions

and for current and non-current books already in the collection. In process of reclassification. The Library of Congress is peculiarly fitted for this work. The scope of the work of the Library of Congress has been increased until it includes cards for all copyrighted books since June 1, 1893. (2) Current accessions of books of all classes published since January 1, 1901. (3) American History, including British, Central and South America and outlying islands. (4) A selection of non-current works in bibliography and library science.

The cards are standard form, size, type and methods of entry. They cost about two cents for the first card and one half cent for extra cards always.

The American Library Association still indexes scientific periodicals and issues the English history cards. The United States Department of agriculture prints cards indexing its material which it distributes to subscribers paying the cost of extra copies.

The Pittsburg Carnegie and Cleveland Public Libraries have united their efforts and are printing cards for children's books. These must be ordered in advance.

The following extract from the Handbook of the Library of Congress on card distribution, gives a good idea of the co-operative spirit among American libraries. "In the United States, alone, are library interests active in co-operative effort, urgent to standardize forms, methods and processes.... willing to make concessions to secure results of the greatest general benefit."

A detailed description of the volume, author catalogue of the British Museum is given. The way in which the A.S. catalogue was made and kept until it became evident that "the huge bulk of the catalogue made it more expensive to keep up in manuscript than to print," is all explained. Many difficulties were encountered in printing the catalogue, one of the chief being due to an attempt to keep the catalogue up to date.

The consideration of the reproduction of "title slips" by printing or by type writing makes a fitting close to the chapter on cataloguing.

IV

Arrangement.

The books are now ready for the shelves and the question of arrangement must be decided. There are two methods of arrangement which must be considered: (1) the fixed or block system; and (2) the movable or relative location. "The objects to be achieved by a system of arrangement are: (1) to classify the books; (2) to provide space for the expansion of each class; (3) to waste no space, either horizontally or vertically."

Classification

is generally considered an essential; and the modern librarian looks upon a library not classified as a mere store house for books. The author however takes quite a different view of the matter. He considers it still an open question whether classification is needed in a library which does not allow access to shelves. He would have good subject indexes and arrange the books by size, thus saving much space. To support his statement he names three large libraries; the Royal Library at Brussels, the Nationale at Florence and the Vittorio Emanuele at Rome, where the books are put on the shelves according to sizes only. However since

the tendency seems to be toward open access making classification unnecessary, the different systems must be considered.

The fixed-location system of the British Museum is described in detail and the list of the subjects of works in the British Museum Library according to the arrangement of books upon the shelves, is given. The presses are numbered from 1- 14,000, leaving blank numbers for insertions. The shelves are denoted by the letters of the alphabet. In 1875 numbers indicating the sequence on the shelves known as "third-marks" were added. The chief difficulty they encounter is with "works in progress." Such of these as are practically interminable, periodicals etc., are not marked on the fixed location system at all. "The most troublesome of the "works in progress" are the "series" which multiply inordinately according to present fashions of publishing." He advocates keeping together all "works in progress" whether periodicals or not and marking them on the system of movable press-marks. Even where relative location prevails he would keep works in progress apart.

Mr. Macfarlane's arguments are well answered by one of his own countrymen and fellow-workers, L. Stanley Jost, in his article on classification (in British Library Year Book, 1900-01, p. 21-36.) He considers a classification as absolutely essential. (a) It is necessary for the student. (b) It is necessary to any of the helping functions of the library. (c) It is necessary to wise administration: e.g. Book purchase. (d) It does not depend on access to shelves. There is no practical recognition among English as of-

posed to American Librarians of the importance of classification. He says "nothing can better illustrate the difference between the American librarian's perspective of the relative importance of things and ours, than the fact that while every librarian this side of the Atlantic, who desired to make a mark in his profession invented an indicator, every librarian that side invented a classification." With reference to Series, Mr. Jast says, "Series unless on one subject should be broken up and distributed to the various heads of the classification like isolated works."

The requisites of a good practical classification are well stated by Mr. Richardson in his "classification, theoretical and practical. They are:- (1.) It should follow the order of things. (2.) It should be carried out in minute detail. (3.) It should have a notation that will admit of indefinite subdivision, having mixed symbols and a decimal base. (4.) It should have a detailed and specific index. (5.) Its value depends largely on the generalness of its use.

It is doubtful if the classification of the British Museum could meet one of these requirements. The author assures us, however, that by careful study and keeping in mind that its basis is the Bible, the Book and the first book printed, some logical connection may be found pervading the whole scheme.

The most marked defects are (1) that the closely related classes, History and Biography are separated by Geography. (2) the books on the literature of all countries are indiscriminately mixed.

The classification cannot be called minute and it has no power of subordination. Mr. Macfarlane points out that sub-divisions allowing more minute and accurate classification would be of very great value as would also a division by periods in history. He thinks these faults are due to the weakness of the fixed location system which does not admit of close classification.

"The fixed classification wastes space horizontally but economises it vertically." This is only true where the books are sorted by sizes as is customary in the relative location. The latter is widely used in the United States and in the free libraries of England.

It has also been adopted by the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris. It is superior to the fixed location in every way. A very great advantage of the system which is not mentioned is that it keeps all of the books on even the smallest subject together and closely related subjects near to them. Thus it shows the relation of the different branches of knowledge. The books may be moved backward or forward so long as the order is preserved. It is customary to shelve the quartos and folios on the lower shelves, which should be broader; and the octavos and smaller books just as they classify, above.

The question of putting the call number on the book is a vexed one. Labels are unsightly and soon become soiled and fall off. No mention is made of the fact that this may be prevented to a great extent by coating with shellac if it is possible to spare the time to do it. Gilding looks better and is more durable than any other means but is very expensive unless the library has some one on the staff.

who can do it, which is very unusual. Since the classification does not distinguish between books on the same subject, it is necessary to have a "book number." This may be selected (the author suggests) in any one of four ways. (1.) The accession number may be used. (2.) A shorter number may be secured by numbering the books in any class from 1. onwards as the books are added. These unscientific methods are sometimes used in connection with the fixed location. The methods most recommended are (3) approximate and (4.) exact alphabetical order. In approximate alphabetic order the books are marked with the initial of the author's name followed by the number which indicates how many times that letter has been used. This puts all the books on a certain subject written by authors whose names begin with the letter A, together in accession order.

In exact alphabetic order the book number is taken from one of the schemes which has been worked out. Ex. The Cutter alphabetic-order table and The Cutter Sanborn table.

Cutter's Rules for book numbers in case of different books by the same author, different copies and editions, translations, biography, commentaries etc. are given. The author admits that the system is quite complete but thinks the marks are too complex. He says "It is certain that this elaboration would break down of its own weight if applied to a really large library." From the context this would seem to refer to the book numbers; but he proceeds to give as an "instance of what is practicable" the classification or system of "press marks" which is used in the Bibliothèque Nationale.

It consists of letters thus, La, Lb, Lc, etc., with numbers added to give the place of the book in its class, which is by accession order. This is a very strange combination with the relative location. The Expansion Classification is used by the Library of Congress with some modifications- the book numbers are also used.

A special arrangement of books is sometimes made to suit the needs of students. Several illustrations are given. An arrangement of books printed before 1600 by place of publication (under countries and then by date has been found very helpful in the Art Library of South Kensington. Since these early printed books were illustrated by local artists, this arrangement exactly meets the needs of the student of art history. Likewise the study of incunabula at Cambridge University Library is greatly facilitated by having the books arranged by towns, printers and dates.

Access and Preservation.

In the final chapter, under the broad heading, "Access and Preservation" the author has crowded all the odds and ends of library administration, which would not, apparently, fit in anywhere else.

The number of days the library is open is of first consideration in the question of access. The tendency is now to keep the library open on Sundays. The movement began with opening the reading room; but has extended to all departments of the library. The branches of the Boston public library are open on Sunday for issuing books as well as for reference and reading. In most libraries the hours are shorter on Sunday than through the week: but there is one notable exception. The Denver public library is open every day in the year from 9 A.M. to 9 P.M. for consultation and issue of books.

The statement is made that there is no question of Sunday opening in libraries existing mainly for research. This is no longer true. The Library of Congress is now open on Sunday from 2-10 P.M. Since Sept. 1902, the Exhibit halls, main reading room, Periodical reading room and Division of Music have been accessible to the public.

The librarian reports that the attendance for the first six Sundays was greater than the average for each secular day last year, 1901. The character of use, as indicated by the proportion of books and periodicals called for within serious departments, was superior to that of the average week-day. Quoting from the report of the librarian of Congress, 1901, "The Sunday opening of libraries and museums is no longer general that the application to a particular institution has ceased to be discussed as a question of utility, much less as a religious question, but purely as a question of local need and of pecuniary ability."

The somewhat startling statement is made that it will always be necessary to close the library a certain number of days each year for cleaning and repairs. Some figures are given for large libraries in England and on the Continent. The length of time varies from 8 days at the British Museum to 55 at the K.u.K. Hofbibliothek, Vienna. The average number of days being about 14. Few if any libraries in the United States ever close for cleaning. Of course, there are instances where repairing or remodeling would necessitate closing the library: but ordinary cleaning can be done without disturbing materially the routine of the library.

"The hour of opening of nearly all the larger libraries in Europe and America is nine o'clock; the closing hour is usually four, where no artificial light is provided The extension of working hours by means of artificial light can only be partial in its operation, at least in libraries of the first rank. The reading rooms can

be illuminated, but the books outside them must remain in darkness, and inaccessible." Gas is (he thinks rightly) too injurious and electric light too expensive. This seems very strange when one learns that electric lights were put in Columbia College Library in 1873 through the efforts of Mr. Dewey. Adjustable light by means of a flexible cord was used in the stacks. It proved a great success and since then electric lights have been generally used in the lighting of stacks and reading rooms. Some figures from the report of the Library of Congress may be of interest. For day service, there are 2,200 windows and extensive sky-lights; For night service 7624 incandescent electric lamps of varying power equal to 9,863 of ordinary 16 candle power. The Luxfer prism is now being largely used in the tops of windows. It lengthens the day from one half hour to an hour. Windows which extend nearly or quite to the ceiling are also a great help in extending the hours of natural light.

Having decided when the library is to be used the next question is, by whom shall it be used. An age limit usually keeps out the younger reader in the large reference and national libraries. The British Museum maintains the highest age limit (21 years) while the lowest for a national library is 16 years. The latter is the limit set by France, Italy and the United States, however, younger persons pursuing serious studies may be admitted by special permit.*

The remarks on the restrictions on the admission of readers and number of books issued are of interest. The tendency in the U-

* Report of Library of Congress 1901.

nited States is toward greater liberality in both respects.

Precautions against theft and danger.

While these restrictions protect the library to a certain extent, they are no surety against theft. The character of the library will determine what precautions must be taken. It is suggested however that in any library, stamps should be used and every volume should bear the name of the library. It should be stamped in the front and back and on each plate, also advisedly on some page whose number is arbitrarily fixed. Numerous stamps and labels are spoken of, but there is no mention of the perforating stamp which is especially good. The plan used at the British Museum, by which books in the Reading room, "Needing special precautions, are stamped with a royal crown on the sides and have another small royal crown impressed into the upper edges of the leaves," makes a peculiarly strong safe guard. Another means not spoken of is used by some libraries, which provide check rooms and require or invite readers to check their parcels and wraps before entering the reading room. The Buffalo public library has the charging desk put immediately by the door where every one has to go out of the room, and in front of the door are turnstiles through which people in coming in and going out are compelled to pass. Immediately in front of these ~~was~~^{is} a sign, "Please have your book charged before leaving the room." There is a strong prejudice against such methods however and they are little used.

A young man was recently arrested for mutilation of a newspaper file

in the Library of Congress. He plead guilty and was fined \$500 with the alternative of six months imprisonment. The policy in the United States is to punish severely all such offences that it may act as a deterrent to others. It was recommended at the A.L.A. Conference 1901 that the Council appropriate when necessary from the income of the Endowment fund ... money to be used in detection or prosecution of bookthieves.

Another danger against which libraries have taken many precautions is not even mentioned. Fire has been guarded against by fire proof stacks and steel shelving and by a recent device which is proving very satisfactory, by means of which the walls can be surrounded with a sheet of water. The steel shelving is no longer considered necessary if the stack is fire proof. For small library buildings slow burning construction is sufficient.

Service of books to a reading-room.

The "section system" used at the British Museum since 1876 is carefully described. The whole library is divided into five sections, each having its special attendants, directed by a "head of a section." The tickets are sorted and sent to the different departments. The attendants become familiar with their section and find the books much more easily and quickly than by the old method. The carrying of tickets and books is done by boys. The books are charged on "boards" which are put on the shelves in their place, and they are charged again in the register, which contains all the board does and the number of the board which

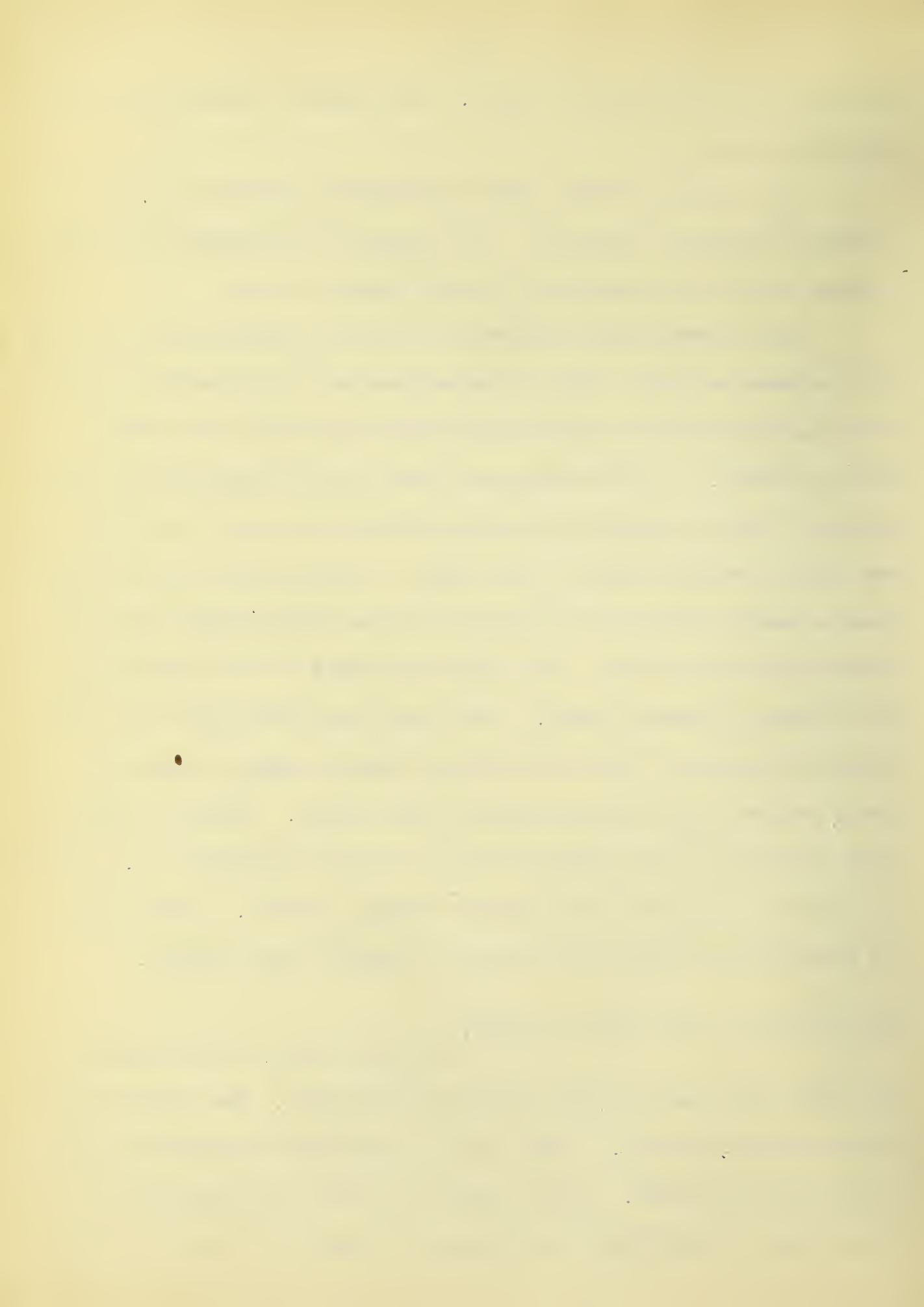
is also put on the reader's ticket. The readers' tickets are filed alphabetically.

The system of "kept books" corresponds exactly to the "reserves" in American libraries. The tendency is to increase the collection to meet the demand and for any length of time.

The enormous difficulties in the way of administration at the Bibliothèque Nationale lead to the explanation of the mechanical devices used in the United States and more especially at the Boston public library. A book railway was put in over which carriages propelled by cables operated by an electric motor are run to the delivery alcove from all parts of the stack. The cars are taken up and down on small elevators, one for each of the stack stories above or below the delivery desk. The tickets are sent to the proper department through pneumatic tubes. The latter are also used in the Library of Congress, where a mechanical endless chain of carrying trays connects the reading rooms and book stacks. Books are delivered in three or four minutes after the tickets are handed in. There is also connection with the Capitol through a tunnel. Communication is immediate and books are delivered in four or five minutes.

Restrictions in the issue of Books.

It is the duty of the librarian to see that the books are used to the best advantage. The greatest good to the greatest number. This usually necessitates some restrictions on the issue of books. It is pointed out that the Continental librarian has the additional difficulty of "prohibited" books to meet.



These must, in Austria, be kept in a separate collection, with a catalogue of its own. They are "only to be issued for reading in the library itself, to people known to the chief librarian as absolutely trustworthy, who want them for purely scientific purposes. Government officials, however, can have the loan of any for purely official purposes. This is quite a different problem from the one which confronts the British and American librarian. The policy in any library is determined by its use or character. The reference library must not do the work of a public library. This fact has led to many interesting rules and regulations in different libraries. "Thus at the British Museum novels are not issued until they are five years old, unless the reader shows to the satisfaction of the authorities that he requires them for genuine literary purposes. The regulations of the Paris National Library forbid the issue of modern novels, and even of plays, except for serious purposes. At Vienna, poems are also included under the ban. Here, too, schoolbooks are not to be had by readers, who must go, if they want them, to the library of the University. It is a matter of great regret that the number of libraries in London is still so small in proportion to the population that this rule cannot be made at the British Museum... It is at times a lamentable sight on a Saturday afternoon to see qualified workers looking in vain for seats, and supplanted by young gentlemen (and ladies) comparing Pitt Press editions of Caesar's Commentaries with Kelly's Keys to the Classics."

The question of fiction in public libraries has been much debated

and a few conclusions have been reached which are not brought out. Fiction should be supplied and such books as the people will read. Mr. Macfarlane is right in saying that the test of literary merit is impossible to enforce. The books must have a healthy moral tone, however, and should not be too stimulating. The effort of the librarian should be constantly to raise the standard of reading. He must avoid books by prolific writers as people with no literary taste generally prefer the books of one author. In a small library it is possible to direct the reading of this class to a large extent. For this purpose books should be selected which have the same elements of interest, but are of a better literary quality.

The importance of furnishing periodicals and of keeping the complete sets on file is emphasized but not unduly. Some one has said that this is the day of monographs, and it is very true that the best and latest material on all scientific subjects is to be found in periodicals and in separates. The specialist is too busy to write a book and thus it happens that the books when they do come out are based for the most part on secondary material.

Exhibitions.

Some valuable suggestions are given with regard to exhibitions which may be summed up as follows. Every library which has "books that are interesting without being read" should so arrange them that they will be seen and enjoyed. Early printed books, rare bindings, illuminated manuscripts etc, are some of the things that should be included. They should form a permanent part of the exhibit;

but there should also be collections on special subjects which are changed frequently. Such an exhibit will save the librarian much time and trouble if the collection is large, and will insure its appreciation if small. If originals cannot be secured, photographic reproductions are easily available and (especially in the case of manuscripts) almost as good. The matter has not received the attention it demands especially in the United States.

The statement is entirely correct, but the tendency is now to unite the library and the museum, and a growing appreciation of art treasures of all kinds is apparent.

Newberry library, Chicago, has one of the few permanent exhibits. The rare books and incunabula are housed in a special room and for the most part in glass cases. Cincinnati public library has a good collection, but no permanent exhibit. New York public library has special art exhibits with the literature on the subject. They are open from one to two months. Any library may have exhibits of books on special subjects. In charge of a specialist, they have proved a very good means of arousing interest in a subject. As to photographing which the author urges the necessity of providing for in a large library, its importance is being realized in the United States. Photographing is freely permitted at the Library of Congress, a special room being provided. Permission to photograph extends to the building itself and any of its parts including the mural decorations. The plans for the new building of the New York Public Library also provides a room for this purpose.

Access to Shelves.

The question of access to shelves has been much discussed and widely adopted in the United States. In Great Britain, however, it has a "rival system" in the "indicator." This mechanical device is described and its advantages and disadvantages are explained. "The indicator" is an apparatus for showing whether or no a given book is available for use, or is out on loan, at binders, lost, damaged or otherwise inaccessible to the borrower. Various kinds of these contrivances have been devised, but for practical purposes it will suffice to describe that currently known as "the Cotgreave" from the name of its inventor. This is used in over sixty libraries in the Metropolis alone and has no rival within that area. It consists of an upright framework of wood or metal, fitted with minute zinc shelves without ends, which is placed in the library so that one side (protected with glass) is visible to the public, and the other accessible to the staff. On the shelves are placed title-ledgers of blank forms, in metal cases with ends colored red and blue respectively, and bearing numbers. When a case is inserted so that the blue end meets the public eye it is to be understood that the book bearing the number shown is "in": when the red end is seen it is "out."

"Each page of the ledger is ruled in columns, in which to enter the number of the borrower's card and the date of the loan. The methods of working the indicator vary slightly in different libraries, but the usual course is this. The borrower having found

in the catalogue the number of the book he requires, and seeing by the color exhibited on his side of the indicator that it is 'in'. hands in a request for it together with his 'borrower's ticket.' The library assistant removes the corresponding ledger from its shelf, enters in it the number of the borrower's ticket and the date of the loan, places the ticket in the ledger and replaces it so as to exhibit the 'out' color to the public. He then procures the book from the shelves and marks the date on the label placed inside the cover for the purpose, Notes the number in a register, and hands the book to the borrower. The entry in a register is not, however, necessary if application for the book has to be made on a printed form- a common arrangement. A more rapid service of issues is possible if the booklets and the respective Borrowers' cards are put aside instead of being immediately returned to the indicator, so that the requisite entries in the ledger can be made as occasion offers."

"The extensive employment of indicators in free libraries is sufficient proof of their convenience to the librarian, but they are subject to considerable draw backs. In the first place, they are mechanical, and to a certain extent usurp the place of the library staff, whose aim should be to come into contact with the public. The position of these tall structures between public and librarian tends to heighten this effect. Again, they cannot be distributed as copies of the catalogue can, and on Saturday evenings and at other busy times the resultant crush of borrowers round them is often lamentable.

The use of the indicator is almost unknown in the United States, where the rival system of 'open access' finds universal favor."

Access to shelves (it may be noted in passing) is based upon the principle that the public should have access to the mass of helpful books, and should be able to do its own choosing among them. Thus access may be free or restricted. Every library has some books on open shelves. The objections to unrestricted access are;

- (1.) Books of high value might be ruined by careless or malicious hands.
- (2.) Classification is of no help when books are not in order.
- (3.) It crowds the alcoves and delays the work of issue.
- (4.) Great loss of books.

The first and third objection must be admitted. With regard to the second the author suggests that, "To prevent the misplacement of books distinguishing labels must be adopted for each shelf, a requirement met by varying colours and fantastic shapes." This original and very grotesque scheme might be worth trying; but the simple plan of asking the readers to leave the books on the tables to be collected and put away by an attendant has usually proven entirely satisfactory. As to the great loss of books, it is in most cases not very great and some advocates claim it is more than made up in the decreased cost of administration. The Denver Public Library was one of the first to have open shelves. It was very successful under Mr. Dana, and is one of the best examples of 'free access'.

The tide is now in favor of restricted access, as being more real

help to the public. The Buffalo Public Library has an open shelf room of very carefully selected works including all classes. It started with 4,700 volumes and 1000 duplicates kept in reserve. It was found necessary to fill the shelves with these, the next day. In 1901 they had 11,217 volumes on open shelves. A more unusual form "limited access" is represented by the standard library of the Providence Public. It consists of the best editions, binding etc. of the standard authors, and is limited to the "literature of power" as distinguished from the "literature of knowledge". Books may not be taken from this collection but duplicates may be called for from the general library. The librarian in charge comes into close contact with the people and is much better able to help them. The collection acts as a powerful stimulus to readers to collect libraries for themselves. Restricted access in the sense of being restricted to a certain class of readers, is not to be considered. It may be a necessity sometimes, but is never advisable under any other circumstances.

Lending out.

From earliest times libraries have loaned books. To sum up the author's points: The Monastic libraries loaned to the monks and to other monasteries. A money deposit was sometimes required or books were exchanged temporarily. The library of the Sorbonne (University of Paris) formerly required a money deposit covering the value of the book. The Vatican Library on the contrary loaned very freely. In the fifteenth century "strangers passing through Rome

easily obtained loans of MSS. Many were probably lost for the next century a bond was required from the borrower of a manuscript.

The British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale lend out under very severe restrictions. The British Museum lends only duplicates and these never to individuals. The Bibliothèque Nationale lends only duplicates and of these no reserve books... books of a frivolous nature, or books with plates. He does not mention that the Library of Congress loans quite freely to other libraries but the loans to individuals are restricted to Congressmen.

As an aid in reaching the public, delivery stations and branches have been tried with varying success in the large cities.

Delivery stations have been administered satisfactorily in some cities having a strong central library. It is, however, merely a mechanical agency for distributing books to the public. It is commonly kept in a store and there is no permanent deposit. "The stimulus of the crowd, the handling of books, the use of reference books and periodicals, the influence of pictures, the help of attendants- all this is lacking." The Boston Public Library had shop stations with both delivery and deposit features; but they are slowly being eliminated in favor of service stations in charge of a library employee. These are really branches, a most important phase of library work in large cities which is not even touched upon. A Branch should be the distributing agency for the central library; a subordinate and auxiliary library with a considerable collection of books. In the most effective type of this system, the central

library and branches are so linked together that the same borrower's card is good everywhere and books taken at one point may be returned at any other in the system. The Central library is the clearing house; but this is only possible with daily wagon service. The branch acts as the advertising agency for the Central library. The work with the schools is largely done through the branches which should be in touch with every educational institution in its district.

The ideal in a large city is to have branches as often as public schools; but other authorities claim they should occur at intervals of a half mile.

Preservation of Books.

Binding- A large proportion of the income of every library must be spent on binding. "The binding bill at the British Museum is about equal to the amount paid to booksellers, though in mitigation it should be remembered that the English books received under the copyright Act cost nothing to purchase and that the binders are also responsible for pasting in the title--slips of accessions.... Binding on the premises will probably not effect a saving in yearly bills unless the latter are very large."

It has been found by actual experience that a library cannot afford to start a bindery of its own until its bills amount to \$2000 or to \$3000. The advantages of having binding done at the library are well set forth in the report of the Library of Congress (1902).

"Library binding is somewhat special. It requires care in materials, great care and skill in the sewing, forwarding, and finishing.

It should be handled by skilled workmen and by the same workmen consecutively and according to standard specifications. These needs are now met here. The presence of the branch also enables the books to be bound without leaving the building. They are thus no longer subject to the peril of transit and of temporary location elsewhere; and any one of them required for an important reference may be referred to even while in process."

Pamphlets were formerly bound separately at the British Museum; but "the expense of this becoming burdensome they were bound together in volumes not more than two inches thick." It is admitted however, that not infrequently a pamphlet bound up with others is followed by a supplement, its indispensable companion. At the Library of Congress "pamphlets are bound separately, the less important in boards. Those least important and least likely to be consulted are not bound at all but placed on the shelves in manila envelopes." This is much better than binding collections of miscellaneous pamphlets. There are good "binders" which serve to keep together several related pamphlets in such a way that any one can be taken out.

Newspapers-

The British Museum binds its newspapers. The Chicago Public Library has a bound newspaper room, but they are probably not binding now, as that is one of the things on which a library can retrench when necessary. The roller shelving is a great help in storing newspapers and making them easily accessible.

The Library of Congress binds "only about one-quarter of the 550,000 current newspapers (the leading American and certain of the foreign)." "The others are not destroyed, but laid away in loose covers for possible binding later.

Maps-

There is nothing unusual in the treatment of maps at the British Museum as stated by Mr. Macfarlane; the large ones are cut up and mounted on cloth and preserved in drawers.

Mr. Letts who has charge of the large collection of the New York Public Library, has given some valuable suggestions on the care of maps. The dissected and mounted to fold are handiest, most easily preserved and the nearest approach to the form of a book; but they are expensive. The former may be kept in pamphlet boxes; but sheet maps should be kept in manila folders and laid in cabinet drawers (two inches deep) or on roller shelves with flaps to keep out the dust. Roller maps may be kept in perpendicular racks. This is practically the system of the Library of Congress, which has "perhaps the most thoroughly equipped map department in the world." The furniture is specially designed. "The storage cases for the sheet maps consist each of a series of slide drawers with wooden flaps in front as dust protectors. These swing up automatically as the drawer is opened, permitting its contents to be drawn out without lifting."

The British Museum uses cheap binding for copyright books which do not promise to be of much value or consulted much. They also econ-

omize in repairing books by preserving the old boards when they are still good. The cost is about "1/20 of what it is under the more professional system of putting on an entire new binding."

As to binding materials the author thinks morocco, roan, velvum and pig-skin are the only leathers worth considering. Judging from the old books pig-skin would seem to be the most durable; but modern methods of preparing leather are detrimental. Morocco is widely used in the United States. The Library of Congress uses it chiefly and some Russia, but also linen (and cotton) duck and "book" cloth." "Duck is used for newspapers, books and periodicals as to which durability is the essential rather than comeliness of appearance, and which do not need to conform to preceding volumes of sets."

At the British Museum distinguishing colors are used for different subjects. There is a color scheme in use in the United States for countries- Light brown for American; dark brown for English; red for French; black, German etc.

Dusting.

There is usually not much difficulty about dust in a public library; but in a reference library there are invariably some parts that are little used. Here the dust must be specially guarded against. The books should be packed firmly together either by filling the shelf or by the use of supports. "Gilding the top edges of books is a salutary but not economical practice." Burnishing is commonly used in the United States. It is inexpensive and answers the same purpose as gilding.

The dust may be removed by clapping the books together as in the University libraries of France, with a brush letting the dust fall on a damp cloth, as is done in the British Museum, or with a dusting machine. Trial was made of a machine at the British Museum in 1890, but it was unsatisfactory. This problem promised to be solved by the use of compressed air. A machine based on this principle has lately been put on trial at the St Louis Public Library.

Books must be protected from the damp as well as from the dust. This is a point in library architecture, however, and does not belong to this discussion.

In any library it is necessary to have the windows open to prevent dampness; but this admits dust. The British Museum uses a window frame covered with canvass. This seems a very good idea, especially for the basement windows.

Conclusion.

Library administration in Great Britain is distinguished by a marked conservatism. As proof of which instance the following-

Concerning the selection of a staff- Very few women are employed, especially in the more scholarly libraries.

In the order department, it is laid down as an inviolable rule that books should never be purchased before seeing.

As to lighting, it is considered quite impractical to light the stacks. Gas is too injurious and electricity is too expensive.

It is a generally accepted fact that libraries must always be closed for cleaning, a certain part of each year.

The author prefers a fixed location and does not think a classification is necessary, unless access to shelves is allowed instead of which the indicator is very largely used in Great Britain.

All this seems very much out of date, compared with American methods. But it is just possible that the aggressiveness of Americans will carry them too far if it is not tempered with a little English Conservatism.

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